NEW PUBLICATIONS.

CAREY'S PRINCIPLES OF SOCIAL SCIENCE.

PRINCIPLES OF SOCIAL SCIENCE. By H. C. CAREY. 3 vols. 8vo. Vol. I. pp. 474. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

The masterly position of Mr. Carey in the science of political economy, has been attained no less by the clearness, simplicity, and force of his expositions, than by the originality and importance of his discoveries. Anticipating by several years the French economist, Bastiat, in the announcement of the principles with which the name of the latter is identified, he was the first to establish the laws according to which social melioration is guaranteed by the powers of nature and the course of history. As a philosophical writer, Mr. Carey is remarkable for the union of comprehensive generalizations with a copious induction of facts. His research of principles never leads him to the neglect of details; nor is his accumulation of instances ever at the expense of universal truth. He is, doubtless, intent on the investigation of laws, as the appropriate aim of science, but no passion for theory seduces him into the region of pure speculation. His mind is no less historical than philosophical, and had he not chosen the severer branch in which his studies have borne such excellent fruit, he would have attained an eminent rank among the historians from whom the literature of our country has received such signal illustration. Mr. Carey has won the infrequent palm of a truly original writer. His achievements in science are the direct result of personal discoveries. Few works of modern times contain so much novelty, without a taint of paradox, as those which bear his name. He has not only brought to light a mass of previously unnoticed facts, but has verified their significance, ascertained the law of which they are the exponent, and assigned them their relative position as elements of economic science. But his originality is not the growth of unacquaintance with the labors of his predecessors, nor of indifference to their bearings. The comparative value of former theories is never lost sight of, and their connection with his own never fails of scientific recognition. In point of style, Mr. Carey is almost as agreeable as Adam Smith; far more so than the generality of writers who have succeeded that prime authority; while in weight and richness of instruction, he has few peers in any department of composition. His course of reasoning is presented in an attractive form, inasmuch as it gives the reader the consciousness of progress; something is gained at every step; he is never made to return upon himself; and at the end of the hour devoted to the argument, he finds not only grounds of conviction, but a sense of mental enrichment and exhilaration. The love of truth is more conspicuous in the writings of Mr. Carey, than the desire of triumph. He inspires the reader with the highest confidence in his intellectual rectitude. This rare trait adds a new charm to his style, and is, doubtless, one secret of his power over the most intelligent inquirers.

In the present volume, which is the first of a large work, Mr. Carey lays down the main principles of his economic system, combining the results of his former investigations in their natural order, which is usually the reverse of the order of discovery, with his more recent successes, and enabling the student of political economy to estimate the importance of his contributions to the elucidation of the science.

The cardinal feature of Mr. Carey's system, as distinguished from that of Malthus, Ricardo, Say, and other modern economists, is the sufficiency of the natural forces of the universe to sustain an indefinite increase of population. The fallacy of the opposite opinion is founded on a mistaken view of the process of settlement in the course of civilization. It has been supposed by the schools of economists, who believe that population *tends* to outrun the means of subsistence, and hence that a large portion of the race is destined by its very constitution to inevitable want and misery, that the work of cultivation has everywhere commenced on rich soils, with large returns to labor, while with the growth of population and wealth, recourse has been had to poorer soils, with a constantly decreasing return. This is the prevailing theory of the most eminent political economists of Europe. Mr. Carey, however, maintains that the truth is precisely the reverse. To the elucidation of this point, and of the inferences derived from it, he devotes no inconsiderable portion of his work.

As the subject is one of no less interest than novelty, we call the attention of our readers to a slight exposition of the theory of Mr. Carey on which he founds a system, claiming to be a new discovery in economical science.

To bring the subject within a narrow compass, take the case of a single individual and his descendants placed upon an island, and observe the natural process of cultivation. In the commencement of his task, he has neither ax nor spade. He works alone. He can take his pick of the land, without fear of rival claims. But the soils around him which would pay best for work put on them are beyond the reach of his resources. They are covered with huge trees that he cannot fell, or they are swamps that he cannot drain. Even to pass through them, in their present condition, is no joke. The first is a tangled mass of roots and stumps, decaying logs and underbrush, which defies locomotion; on the other he sinks knee-deep at every step. The atmosphere is only a pestilent congregation of vapors; unwholesome fogs settle on the lowlands; and the dense foliage of the woods prevents the circulation of the air. He has no ax, and if he had one, he could hardly use it on the poisonous thicket without losing his life. With the rank vegetation, before he could clear a single acre, a portion of it would be again so overgrown that he would have to commence his work anew. The higher lands, comparatively barren of timber, are also comparatively poor in soil. But here he must begin, if he begins at all. Finding a place where the soil is so thin as to prevent the growth of trees and shrubs, he makes a hole with a stick, drops in a few seeds an inch or two below the surface, and in due time obtains a twofold return. He makes the corn into bread, by pounding it between stones, and has thus taken the first step toward an improved condition. He has succeeded in making the earth labor for him, while engaged himself in trapping birds or rabbits, or in gathering wild fruits. Still later, he sharpens a stone and makes a hatchet. He can now girdle a few trees, and cut away the sprouts and roots. Gradually, he clears away a space, and brings into activity a new soil. He finds a piece of copper ore, and thus improves his hatchet. In the same way he obtains an apology for a spade, and can now make holes four inches deep with less labor than with his stick he could make them of two. By and by, he finds a piece of tin, which he combines with his copper, and thus has brass, which gives him a very important lift. He extends his conquest over the forest, and gets hold of better land than be had at first, though not yet of a very superior quality. By this time, his children are big enough to bear a hand; they can pull up weeds, hack down small bushes, and lend their aid in many ways. Thus the process of improvement goes on, till with the further increase of his family, and the growth of his sons, he has gained the advantage of combined action.

With increase of numbers there is now increased power of association, manifested by increased division of employments, and attended with augmented power to command the service of the great natural agents provided for their use. One portion of the little community now performs all the labors of the field, while another gives itself to the further development of the mineral wealth by which it is everywhere surrounded. They invent a hoe, by means of which the children are enabled to free the ground from weeds, and to tear up some of the roots by which the best lands—those last brought into cultivation—are yet infested. They have succeeded in taming the ox, but, as yet, have had little occasion for his services. They now invent the plow, and, by means of a piece of twisted hide, are enabled to attach the ox, by whose help they turn up a deeper soil, while extending cultivation over more distant land. The community grows, and with it grows the wealth of the individuals of which it is composed, enabling them, from year to year, to obtain better machinery, and to reduce to cultivation more and better lands. Food and clothing become more abundant, while the air on the lower lands is improved by the clearing of the timber. The dwelling, too, is better. In the outset, it was a hole in the ground. Subsequently, it was composed of such decayed logs as the unaided efforts of the first settler could succeed in rolling and placing one upon the other. As yet, the chimney was unknown, and he must live in perpetual smoke, if he would not perish of cold. As a window was a luxury then unthought of, if the severity of the weather required him to close his doors, he was not only stifled, but passed his days in darkness. His time, during a large portion of the year, was therefore totally unproductive, while his life was liable to be shortened by disease produced by foul air within, or severe cold without, his miserable hut. With increase of population all have acquired wealth, resulting from the cultivation of new and better soils, and from a growing power to command the services of nature. With this increase of power there has been a further increase in the power of association, with steady tendency to the development of individuality, as the modes of employment have become more and more diversified. They now fell the heavy oak and the enormous pine, and are thereby enabled to construct additional dwellings, each in regular succession better than the first. Health improves, and population increases more rapidly. A part of it is now employed in the field, while another prepares the skins, and renders them more fit for clothing; and a third set makes axes, spades, hoes, plows, and other implements calculated to aid the labors of the field, and in those of construction. The supply of food increases rapidly, and with it the power of accumulation. In the first years, there was perpetual danger of famine, but now there being a surplus, a part is stored to provide against failure of the crops.

Cultivation extends itself along the hill-side, where deeper soils, now laid open by the plow, yield larger returns; while down the slope of the hill each successive year is marked by the disappearance of the great trees by which the richer lands have heretofore been occupied—the intermediate spaces becoming meanwhile enriched by the decomposition of the enormous roots, and more readily plowed because of the gradual decay of the stumps. A single ox to the plow can now turn up a greater space than in the outset could be done by two. A single plowman can now do more than on the ground first cultivated could have been done by hundreds of men armed with pointed sticks. The community being next enabled to drain some of the lower lands, copious harvests of grain are obtained from the better soil now first cultivated. Thus far the oxen have roamed the woods, gathering what they could, but the meadow is now granted to their use, the ax and the saw enabling the family to inclose them, and thus to lessen the labor attendant upon obtaining supplies of meat, milk, butter, and hides. Heretofore their chief domestic animal has been the hog, which could live on mast, but now they add beef, and perhaps mutton, the lands first cultivated being abandoned to the sheep. They obtain far more meat and grain, and with less labor than at any former period; a consequence of their increase in numbers and in the power of association. Numerous generations having already passed away, the younger ones now profit by the wealth they had accumulated, and are thus enabled to apply their own labor with daily increasing advantage—obtaining a constantly increasing return, with increasing power of accumulation, and decreasing severity of exertion. They now bring new powers to their aid, and the water no longer is allowed to run to waste. Even the air itself is made to work, windmills grinding the grain, and saw-mills cutting the timber, which disappears more rapidly; while the work of drainage is in course of being improved by help of more efficient spades and plows. The little furnace makes its appearance, and charcoal being now applied to the reduction of the iron-yielding soil, it is found that the labor of a single day becomes more productive than before had been that of many weeks. Population spreads itself along the faces of the hills and down into the lower lands, becoming more and more dense at the seat of the original settlement; and with every step we find increasing tendency to combination of action for the production of food, the manufacture of clothing and of household utensils, the construction of houses, and the preparation of machinery for aiding in all these operations. The heaviest timber—that growing on the most fertile land—now disappears, and deep marshes are now drained. Roads are next made to facilitate the intercourse between the old settlement and the newer ones that have been formed around it, and to enable the grower of corn to exchange for wool, or perhaps for improved spades or plows, for clothing or for furniture.

Population again increases, with still further development of wealth and power, and therewith is acquired leisure for reflection on the results furnished by the experience of themselves and their predecessors. From day to day, mind becomes more stimulated into action. The sand in the neighborhood being found to be underlaid with marl, the two are, by aid of the improved machinery now in use, brought into combination, thereby producing a soil of power far exceeding that of those heretofore in cultivation. With increased returns to labor all are better fed, clothed and housed, and all are incited to new exertions, while with improved health and with the power of working in-doors and out-of-doors, according to the season, they are enabled to apply their labor with greater steadiness and regularity. Thus far, however, they have found it difficult to gather their crops in season. The harvest time being short, the whole strength of the community has been found insufficient to prevent much of the grain remaining on the ground until, over ripe, it was shaken out by the wind, or in the attempt to gather it. Not unfrequently, indeed, it has been totally ruined by changes of weather after it had been fit for harvesting. Labor has been superabundant during the year, while harvest produced a demand for it that could not be supplied. The reaping-hook, however, now takes the place of the hand, while the scythe enables the farmer to cut his hay. The cradle and the horse-rake follow, all tending to increase the facility of accumulation, and thus to increase the power of applying labor to new soils, deeper or more distant, more heavily burdened with timber, or more liable to be flooded—and thus requiring embankment as well as drainage. New combinations, too, are formed. The clay is found to be underlaid with the soil called lime, which latter, like the iron-yielding soil, requires decomposition to fit it for the task of combination. The road, the wagon, and the horse facilitate the work by enabling the farmer readily to obtain supplies of the carbon-yielding soil, called coal, and he now obtains, by burning the lime and combining it with the clay, a better soil than at any former period—one yielding more corn, and requiring less severe labor from himself. Population and wealth again increase, and the steam-engine assists the work of drainage, while the railroad and the engine facilitate the transportation to market of his products. His cattle being now fattened at home, a large portion of the produce of his rich meadow-land is converted into manure, to be applied to the poorer soils that had at first been cultivated. Instead of sending food to fatten them *at* market, he now obtains *from* market their refuse in the form of bones, by help of which to maintain the powers of his land. Passing thus, at every step, from the poor to the better soils, there is obtained a constantly increasing supply of food, and other necessaries of life, with corresponding increase in the power of consumption and accumulation. The danger of famine and disease now passes away. Increased returns to labor and daily improving condition rendering labor pleasant, he is seen everywhere applying himself more steadily as his work becomes less severe. Population further increases, and the rapidity of its increase is seen to be greater with each successive generation—while with each is seen an increase of the power of living in connection with each other, by reason of the power of obtaining constantly increasing supplies from the same surface. With every step in this direction the *desire* for association and for combination of action is seen to grow with the growth of the *power* to satisfy it, and thus are their labors rendered more productive and the facilities of commerce augmented—with constant tendency to the production of harmony, peace, and security of person and property, among themselves, and with the world—accompanied by constant increase of numbers, wealth, prosperity and happiness.

Such is a theoretical view of the natural progress of population and wealth in the development of human history. But in opposition to Ricardo, whose whole system is founded on the opposite supposition, Mr. Carey maintains that the above picture of fancy corresponds precisely to the actual course of colonization and settlement. To begin with the United States.

Among the first settlers of the English race were the Pilgrims, who took possession of the barren soil of Massachusetts. They pitched upon the rocky lands, which are scarcely surpassed in sterility by any soils in the Union, while the most productive portions of that State have been cultivated only within the last half century. The process was the same in New-York. The unproductive land of Manhattan Island and the higher lands of the opposite shores claimed early attention, while the lower and richer ones in the vicinity remain even to this time undrained and uncultivated. Following the population, we find them passing along the course of the Hudson to the valley of the Mohawk, and settling near the head of the stream on lands that required but little clearing or drainage.

In New-Jersey, they occupied the higher lands toward the heads of the rivers, while neglecting the lower grounds that cannot drain themselves. On the banks of the Delaware, we find the Quakers selecting the lighter soils which produce the pine, while avoiding the richer and heavier ones of the opposite shore of Pennsylvania. Every settler, too, selects the higher and dryer parts of his farm for immediate cultivation, leaving the meadows, many of which remain even now in a state of nature, while others have been drained within the last few years. The Swedes settled Lewistown and Christiana on the sandy soil of Delaware. Crossing the State toward the head of Chesapeake Bay, we find, in the little decaying towns of Elkton and Charlestown, further evidence of the poverty of the soils first occupied, when fine meadow land, on what are now the richest farms of the State, was abundant, but held as worthless. Penn follows the Swedes and selects the high lands on the Delaware about twelve miles north of the site which he afterward chose for his city, near the confluence of that river and the Schuylkill. Tracing the course of settlement from this point, we find it extending along the ridge between the two rivers, and avoiding at first the rich meadow land on their banks. Even now we everywhere meet farms on the hill-sides, while the lower lands are not yet subjected to cultivation. As we advance, the river banks are almost in a state of nature, and it is only at a distance that we find farms which have been cultivated for half a century. The old road winds about among the hills, in order to suit the early settlers, while the new roads keep near the stream on the low and rich lands last brought into cultivation. Indeed this fact may be noticed, with few exceptions, in every part of the country. It is well stated by Mr. Peshine Smith, one of the most judicious popular writers on Political Economy: "In the regions sufficiently advanced to admit the construction of canals and railroads, every one has it in his power to verify the fact, by observing the contrast in the aspect of the lands bordering their course, and those which line the old highways. The latter will generally be found ascending every hill-top which lies in the neighborhood of their general direction, even when nothing is saved, in point of distance, by going over the hill instead of going round it. It is usually found, indeed, that the length of a railroad connecting two towns at any considerable distance from each other, is less than that of the old roads which formed the route of travel before it was built; although the former is necessarily under restrictions which prevent attempts to save distance at the expense of elevations in the grade, much more than the ordinary carriage-road. But the highway is lined with cultivated fields, and with houses. It was made to facilitate communication between them, its track worn by the footsteps of men before it was run out by the surveyor, and its purposes compelled it to go where population went, with small regard to the labor which its steep grades would impose upon the beasts of draught that were to toil over it. The railroad, on the contrary, is constructed by engineers, whose problem it is to reduce the power to be expended in drawing heavy loads to a minimum, regard being had both to distance and to elevation. It plunges through swamps and forests, as if to hide itself from the habitations of men. They will grow up upon its edge in due season, for the road has drained the swamps, and let in the sunlight to the gloomy depths of the woods; but, upon the first opening of a railroad, we ordinarily are struck with the juxtaposition of this work of highest art with those of rudest nature."

The early settlers of the West uniformly selected the higher lands, leaving the lower and richer ones for their successors. The immediate valleys of streams, though possessing the most fertile soil, were avoided, as they still are, on account of the danger of fever. We have evidence of the same fact in the Southern Atlantic States. The richest lands in North Carolina, to the extent of millions of acres, remain to this time uncleared and undrained, while labor is bestowed on the poorer soils, which yield but three, four or five bushels to the acre. South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, and Alabama, have immense tracts of the finest meadow lands, adapted to the highest cultivation, and waiting only the growth of wealth and population.

The facts are everywhere the same, and, were it possible to find an apparent exception, it would but prove the rule. For the same reason that the settler builds himself a log-house, to provide shelter while waiting until he can have one of stone, he begins cultivation where he can use his plow, and thus avoid the starvation that would result from endeavoring to do so where he cannot; and where fevers, followed by death, would be the inevitable result of the attempt. In every case on record, in which settlements have been attempted on rich lands, they have either failed totally, or their progress has been slow; and it has been only after repeated efforts that they have thriven. The reader who desires evidence of this fact, and of the absolute necessity for commencing with the poorer soils, may obtain it by studying the history of the French colonies in Louisiana and Cayenne, and comparing their repeated failures with the steady growth of those formed in the region of the St. Lawrence, where numerous and somewhat prosperous settlements were formed at places where the land is now held to be almost utterly valueless, because better soils can be obtained elsewhere at so little cost of labor. He may obtain additional evidence by comparing the gentle, but steady, growth of the colonies planted on the sterile soils of New-England, with the repeated failures of colonization upon the richer lands of Virginia and Carolina. The latter could not be reduced to cultivation by men working for themselves; and hence it is that we find the richer colonists purchasing negroes, and compelling them to perform the work, while the free laborer seeks the light, sandy lands of North Carolina. No man, left to himself, will commence the work of cultivation on the rich soils, because it is from them that the return is then the least; and it is upon them, throughout all the new countries of the world, that the condition of the laborer is the worst, where the work is undertaken in advance of the habit of association that comes with the growth of wealth and population. The settler who sought the high, light lands obtained food, although the return to his labor was very small. Had he undertaken to drain the rich soils of the Dismal Swamp, he would have perished for want of food, as did those who settled the fertile island of Roanoke.

Crossing the Rio Grande into Mexico, we find further illustrations of this universal law. Near the mouth of the river, but at some distance from its bank, is the City of Matamoras, of recent date. Following the river from this point to the mouth of San Juan, the traveler will pass over vast bodies of the richest lands, but not yet cultivated, until he arrives in a somewhat populous country with Monterey for its capital. Passing west to Saltillo, and thence south, his road will be over sandy plains till he comes to Potosi, in a country without rivers, and almost without the possibility of irrigation, dependent entirely on the periodical rains. Yet toward the coast, he will see a country of unrivaled magnificence, watered by numerous rivers, in which the cotton and indigo plant grow spontaneously, and which might almost supply the markets of the world with sugar. But this land is uncleared and undrained for the simple reason that with the present means of the country, none could undertake it without starving, or perishing by the fevers which there, as everywhere, prevail among the richest soils before cultivation. In the West Indies, we find the little dry and rocky islands of Montserrat, Nevis, St. Kitts, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and others cultivated throughout, while Trinidad, with the richest of soils, remains almost in a state of nature, and Porto Rico, a land of superior fertility, is but now beginning to be subjected to cultivation. South America illustrates the same law. The centers of population, at Santa Fé de Bogota and Quito, are on high and dry lands, while the valley of the Orinoco remains unoccupied. The only civilized people in the days of Pizarro were in Peru, where the soil was drained by rapid streams that forbade the formation of marshes, and consequently of so poor a quality as to be easily cleared. Brazil, watered by the greatest rivers of the world, is to this day a wilderness. With no elevated table-lands, it affords no eligible situation for European colonists.

Crossing the ocean, fresh illustrations of the great law swarm around us everywhere. In the south of England, where the streams are short and the valleys limited, the land is well fitted for early cultivation. It was here that Cæsar found the only people of the island who had made any progress in the art of tillage. Proceeding toward Cornwall, we find a land noted for its barrenness, but everywhere exhibiting marks of cultivation of great and unknown antiquity. Scarce a hill-top on the route but even now shows signs of early occupation. The palace of the Norman kings is at Winchester, and not in the valley of the Thames. The forests and swamps of the days of the Plantagenets are now the seats of the highest fertility. The morasses which had well nigh swallowed up the army of the Norman conqueror on his return from the devastation of the north now show the rich fields and meadows of South Lancashire, covered with waving grain, or pasturing herds of the finest cattle. The land most recently reduced to cultivation is among the fens of Lincoln and Cambridgeshire and the sandy wastes of Norfolk. Passing north into Scotland, we find the earliest seats of cultivation among the remote districts which are now almost wholly abandoned. The places at which the people of early days were accustomed to assemble are in those portions of the kingdom now presenting the smallest inducements for occupation.

Looking to France in the days of Cæsar, we find the most powerful tribes seated on the flanks of the Alps in a country far less populous now than it was then. In Belgium, the barren Luxemburg and Limburg have been cultivated from time immemorial, while Flanders, now so rich, remained until the seventh century an impenetrable desert. The early population of Holland lived on miserable islands of sand, forced to content themselves with eggs, fish, and very small supplies of vegetable food, while surrounded by forests and marshes which covered the most fertile lands. Further north, we meet a people whose ancestors passed from the neighborhood of the Don, through the rich plains of Northern Germany, and finally selected the barren mountains of the Scandinavian peninsula as the land best suited to their existing condition. The same fact recurs in Russia. Almost everywhere, the poorest soil, on the higher ground, which requires no trouble in draining, is selected for cultivation while that of the richest quality remains neglected in the vicinity. We may pursue our travels through the south of Europe, the East, and the Pacific archipelago with the same result. Turning toward the north, till we arrive at the region of the Himalayas, we find the same order of cultivation; the villages are everywhere placed on slopes upon which their people grow scanty crops of millet, maize, and buckwheat; while the bottom lands are generally a wild and tangled mass of jungle. Immediately around is the cradle of the human race, and suited above all other lands to that purpose, where the man who works without a spade or an ax can obtain a scanty supply of food; but, for that reason, a country least adapted to his uses when he has acquired power to direct the forces of nature to his service.

Here we are surrounded by man in a state of barbarism; and standing here, we may trace the course of successive tribes and nations passing toward the lower and more productive lands; but compelled in all cases to seek the route least disturbed with water-courses, and therefore keeping the ridge that divides the waters of the Black Sea and the Mediterranean from those of the Baltic. Standing here, we may mark them, as they descend the slope, sometimes stopping for the purpose of cultivating the hilly land that can, with their indifferent machinery, be made to yield a small supply of food; at others marching on and reaching the neighborhood of the sea, there to place themselves, not on the rich lands, but on the poor soils of the steep hill-side—those on which water cannot stand to give nourishment to trees, or to afford annoyance to settlers whose means are inadequate to the draining of marshes and of swamps; or on little peaked islands, from which the water passes rapidly, as is the case with those of the Ægean, cultivated from so early a period. Some of these tribes are seen reaching the Mediterranean, where civilization is first found, and soonest lost under the pressure of successive waves of emigration; while others are passing further west, and entering Italy, France and Spain. Others, more adventurous, reach the British Isles. Again, after a few centuries of rest, we see them crossing the broad Atlantic, and commencing the ascent of the slope of the Alleghany, preparatory to the ascent and passage of the great range dividing the waters of the Pacific from those of the Atlantic; and in all cases we mark the pioneers gladly seizing on the clear dry land of the steep hill-side, in preference to the rich and highly wooded land of the river bottoms. Everywhere we see them, as population gradually increases, descending the sides of the hills and mountains toward the rich lands at their feet; and everywhere, with the growth of numbers, penetrating the earth to reach the lower soils, to enable them to combine the upper clay, or sand, with the lower marl, or lime—and thus to compound for themselves, out of the various materials with which they have been provided by the Deity, a soil capable of yielding a larger return than that upon which they were at first compelled to expend their labor. Everywhere, with increased power of union, we see them exercising increased power over land. Everywhere, as the new soils are brought into activity, and as their occupants are enabled to obtain larger returns, we find more rapid increase of population, producing increased tendency to combination of exertion, by help of which their powers are trebled, quadrupled, and quintupled, and sometimes fifty-fold increased; enabling them better to provide for their immediate wants, while accumulating more rapidly the machinery by means of which further to increase their power of production, and still more fully to bring to light the vast treasures of nature. Everywhere, we find that with increasing population the supply of food becomes more abundant and regular, and clothing and shelter are obtained with greater ease—famine and pestilence tend to pass away—health becomes more universal—life becomes more and more prolonged—and man becomes more happy and more free.

In regard to all the wants of man, except the single and important one of food, such is admitted to be the case. It is seen that with the growth of population and of wealth men obtain water, and iron, and coal, and clothing—and the use of houses, and ships, and roads—in return for less labor than had been at first required. It is not doubted that the gigantic works by means of which great rivers are carried through our cities, enable men to obtain water at smaller cost than was required when each man took a bucket and helped himself on the river bank. It is seen that the shaft which has required years to sink, and to discharge the water from which the most powerful engines are required, supplies fuel at far less cost of labor than had been required when the early settlers carried home the scraps of half decomposed timber, for want of an ax with which to cut the already fallen log—that the grist-mill converts the grain into flour more cheaply than was the case when it was pounded between stones—and that the gigantic factory supplies cloth more cheaply than the little loom; but it is denied that such is the case in reference to the soils required for cultivation. In regard to everything else, man commences with the worst machinery and proceeds upward toward the best; but in regard to land, and that alone, he commences, according to Mr. Ricardo, with the best and proceeds downward toward the worst; and with every stage of his progress finds a decreasing return to labor, threatening starvation, and admonishing him against raising children to aid him in his age; lest they should imitate the conduct of the people of India and of the Islands of the Pacific—where land, however, is abundant and food should be cheap—and bury him alive or expose him on the river shore, that they may divide among themselves his modicum of food.

To sum up the conclusions of Mr. Carey on this subject: the laws of nature, being universal in their application, extend equally to food, light, air, clothing, and fuel; in every case, man commences with the worst machinery, and proceeds onward to the best; and is thus enabled with the growth of wealth, of population, and of the power of association, to obtain with constantly diminishing labor an increased supply of all the necessaries, conveniences, comforts, and luxuries of life.

The next great topic which Mr. Carey discusses in this volume is the doctrine of value. On this question, which may be regarded as the test of economical science, his views are equally profound and lucid. The essential element of value, according to his theory, is the cost of reproduction, or the resistance to be overcome in obtaining the commodities which are objects of pursuit. This position is ably argued, and its application to the various interests of society clearly pointed out and illustrated.

Of all modern economists, Mr. Carey is the most cheerful in his views of the resources of nature and the social destiny of man. But he does not overlook the inexorable conditions to which human progress is subjected. Man obtains power over nature by combination with his fellows. The forces of steam, electricity, and other natural agents are thus gradually substituted for the human hand. He passes from the cultivation of the poor soils of the hills to that of the rich soils of the river bottoms, with constant increase in the facility of obtaining the food, clothing, and shelter required for his nourishment and support. But no effective combination can take place without diversity in the modes of employment. The various faculties of individuals are thus developed, they become fitted for association, and gain that vigor and facility of intellect by which they can direct the forces of nature to their service.

Our summary view of the contents of a portion of this volume will give our readers only an inadequate conception of its richness and value; but if it leads them to study its pages for themselves, they will thank us for having directed their attention to a source of so much sound instruction presented in so agreeable a form.

CALIFORNIA.

THE GOLD MINES IN PRIVATE HANDS DECLARED PUBLIC PROPERTY.

From our Own Correspondent.

SAN FRANCISCO, March 19, 1858.

In the latter part of 1853 our Supreme Court decided in the case of Hicks agt. Bell that the State, and not the Federal Government, was the owner of all the mines of gold and silver within the limits of the State. In the opinion rendered at the time in the case, the Court said that under the common law of England, the King was always considered as proprietor by virtue of his sovereignty, of all mines of gold and silver. Blackstone mentions the right to mines as one of the prerogatives of the crown. In the case of the Queen agt. the Earl of Northumberland, 1 Plowden, 310, this right was recognized by the English Court of Exchequer.

The English common law is in force in the United States and in California, except where changed by statutory or Constitutional enactments, or by our own new common law; and no change has ever been made in regard to the proprietorship of mines being an incident of sovereignty. On the contrary, that principle has been expressly recognized in several of the States.

Under our form of government the several States are sovereign; the federation is not sovereign; it has none of the character of a sovereignty; it is a mere compact with agents permitted by the sovereign States to exercise certain powers. California, upon her admission into the Union as a State, on an equality with the original thirteen, became sovereign, and by virtue of her sovereignty became the owner of the mines of gold and silver within her limits.

The Court did not make special mention of the compact made between the Federal Government and California by the act of admission into the Union, wherein it is declared that an "express condition" of the admission should be that the State should "never interfere with the primary disposal "of the public lands," and should do no act whereby the title of the United States thereto should be impaired or questioned. The Court admitted that the Federal Government is the owner of the public lands in the State, but owns them on the same tenure with private proprietors—the ownership not extending to the mines of precious metals.

Such is a brief outline of the argument in the case of Hicks agt. Bell. The State had never set up any claim to the mines, and the decision came very unexpectedly. It was not favorably received. The Supreme Court was not respected, nor respectable; all its Judges were unfit for the positions they occupied: two of them were notoriously and grossly profligate men, and two of them were fillibusters and nullifiers of a very dark stripe. The press repudiated their decision, and the Legislatures and the Governors ignored it.

If the ownership of mines is really under our law an attribute of sovereignty, it is an attribute which might be delegated, as the States have delegated the exclusive right of coining money—which is another attribute of sovereignty—to the General Government; and the delegation might, I presume, be made as effectually in a compact, such as that of the act of admission of this State into the Union, ratified by acceptance, as by a Constitution. If the compact in the act of admission be binding, the question arises whether the ownership of the public land implies the ownership of the precious metal in the land; whether the promise of California, that she would not deny the title of the Union to the public land, extended also to the mines. As to the actual interpretation of the compact by the people of California and by Congress, there can be no doubt that land was supposed to include the mines; but the "legal intendment" might be different.

However, the decision in the case of Hicks agt. Bell has now been reversed. On the 15th inst. the Supreme Court decided, in the case of Boggs agt. The Merced Mining Company, that the Federal Government owns the gold, not only in the public lands, but also in the land granted away by Mexico. Boggs is a lessee of Fremont (who holds a United States patent for the land, under a Mexican grant), and he sued to eject the defendants, an association which has been in possession of the tract in dispute for seven years, and has spent $800,000 in erecting machinery and improvements for the purpose of mining quartz. The case was decided in favor of the the plaintiff in the District Court: the Supreme Court reverse the decision, and order final judgment to be entered for the defendants.

They set forth their views of the case in a long opinion. They hold that the ownership of mines of precious metals was not an attribute of sovereignty under the English law, but a personal prerogative of the monarch; that the State of California has no right to the mines by virtue of her sovereignty nor by any other title; and that the United States, by conquest and treaty, own the public land of California and all that is in it. They say further that the holder of a United States land patent given in confirmation of a Mexican grant has no greater rights than he had or would have had under the Mexican laws, and that as Mexico never granted away to private persons, or at least did not grant to Alvarado—the original grantee of the Fremont ranch—the title to mines of gold and silver, so Fremont is not the owner of the gold within the limits of his claim. And the Court quote the language of the Supreme Court of the United States in deciding this very Fremont case, as follows:

"The only question before the Court is the validity of the title. And whether there be any mines on this land, and, if there be any, what are the rights of the sovereignty in them, are questions which must be settled in another form of proceeding, and are not subjected to the jurisdiction of the Commissioners or the Court, by the Act of 1851."

Having decided that the United States own the gold, they add that with the ownership must go the right to dig the gold, and to occupy so much land as is necessary in the digging: and that the right of digging may be transferred by the Government to individuals. They held, further, that the defendants, though they have no express license from the Federal Government to dig the gold, yet have its implied license—the implication being plainly shown by the notorious circumstances of the country and the course of legislation: and that, having that implied license, they are not liable to be ejected by the owner of the land or his assignees.

Property worth millions of dollars is involved in the decision, and no doubt the question will be carried up to the Supreme Court of the United States. There are about a dozen ranches which contain valuable gold mines, and their average size is not less than 20,000 acres. Hitherto the miners have been driven off without difficulty by injunctions, but hereafter the ranch owner will have no more privilege in mining for the gold upon his land than any stranger. The principle extends to mines of quicksilver, as well as to those of gold; and it is said that a party is being formed to commence work on the great New-Almaden mine, sinking their shafts in the side of the hill opposite the shafts of the present possessors of the mine.

The matter deserves the attention of Congress, and should be given to some able Committee, with instructions to report whether some further legislation be not necessary in regard to the ownership of the gold on land held under Mexican grants, and whether measures should not be taken to dispose of the mines on public lands.

The Supreme Court say that the United States patent conveys no greater rights than did the Mexican grant, but patents have been issued in cases where there was no grant, where the claimants had nothing more than a license to pasture cattle; and nearly all the Mexican grants were cumbered with conditions which have fallen away under the American title. The land systems of the two countries are different, and titles under them cannot be the same.

INTERESTING FROM UTAH.

MURDER OF DR. G. W. HICKMAN.

Special Correspondence of The Cincinnati Inquirer.

CAMP SCOTT, U. T., March 1, 1858.

One who has not been accustomed to this climate could hardly believe the rapid changes which it undergoes. When I wrote you my last letter I had to thaw my ink, and with difficulty only could I keep myself from freezing inside my tent. Now I am writing without fire, and am very comfortable. Were it not for the lack of verdure in our landscape, and the mountains, apparently within a stone's throw of us, whose tops and sides are groaning under their heavy mantle of snow, and the ice yet bridging over our little stream, I would think I was writing this on a Summer's day, and under a tropical sun. To-day is really a Spring day—warm, pleasant and lovely without. The thermometer marks 56° above zero. This opens well for March. It is an old saying, that when March "comes in like a lamb it goes out like a hen." If this holds good here, we are yet to be reminded that we are still in the Rocky Mountains. The old mountain men, however, say that the Winter is over. One of them told me that he saw, the other day, grass growing on the sunny side of the elevations. The snow is all gone from the valleys and lower altitudes, where the sun could shine. About two weeks ago the weather changed suddenly from cold to warm, and has continued warm ever since; but the mountain streams have not yet begun to flow.

The beef stored away for our supplies until Spring has commenced to thaw. Fears are entertained that much of it will spoil if this warm spell continues. But efforts are being made to preserve it by surrounding it with ice. If this project fails, we have about 600 head of cattle on the hoof that can be slaughtered at pleasure to supply the demand. Six hundred more can be had from Platte Bridge early in the Spring.

Divers rumors are afloat in camp concerning the attitude of the Mormons in Salt Lake. But we have no reliable information from that quarter. One of these rumors says that the Mormons are all leaving the city and seeking refuge in the mountains. Another states that they are sending only their women and children to the mountains and outside villages for security, while the fighting population are to remain and prepare to give us a hot and hospitable reception in the Spring. These rumors are brought in by Indians, who may be interested in behalf of the Mormons to circulate them.

No tidings have reached us from Capt. Marcy, whose return from Taose, New-Mexico, is expected in April, or sooner. Neither have we heard from the "Rangers," under Ficklin, who left more than two months ago to go to the "Flat Head" nation for Indian ponies. His return is also expected soon.

The expedition alluded to in my last article as having gone to reenforce Capt. Marcy, has been so fortunate as to reclaim 41 battery horses, which were supposed to have been stolen from the army last Fall. Those horses were brought into camp three days ago by some Utah Indians. On being questioned where the horses were found, these Indians would only reply, "Away off yonder, away off—many heap of sleeps from here." It is supposed they were reclaimed somewhere in the Utah Valley. They are in fine condition.

Two days ago intelligence came to us that the body of a man was found hanging to a tree near Smith's Fork. Some dragoons found the body thus suspended, cut it down and buried it.

Those who found him report that he had red whiskers and a mark, as if from a cut, on his right cheek. His skull was knocked in behind. This shows that he did not hang himself. The body had the appearance of having been hanging there some months. His eyes were eaten out by the crows, and his face was so picked and mangled that nothing more was observed that would aid in identifying the individual. There are, however, strong reasons for believing the body to be that of Dr. George W. Hickman, who was released from Col. Alexander's camp last Fall. Dr. Hickman had a red goatee on his chin, and a whitish mustache. He had a scar on his right cheek.

A few days after Dr. Hickman left our camp, it was whispered around among the mountain men here "that he had not been able to make the *connection*," meaning that he had been cut off before he could join the Mormons then at Fort Bridger. Dr. Hickman, as well as his brother, the notorious "Bill" Hickman, had had much to do in the outrages committed against the resident mountain men. His clique, headed by "Bill" Hickman, had driven them from their homes, had stolen their horses and cattle, and had remorsely appropriated to their own use much of their property. It was stated as a fact that the mule Dr. Hickman rode out of our camp when he was released, was stolen by "Bill" H. from one of our guides, now present in our camp.

It is thus rendered highly probable that the dead body is that of Dr. H., who was murdered to gratify the malice, which all the mountaineers bear, not only to the Mormons generally, but particularly to "Bill" Hickman, the doctor and their clan. Some think, on the contrary, that it is the body of some person returning to the States from our camp or California, who was murdered for his money. But, no matter whose body it is, every means will be used to ferret out the perpetrator of the deed, and bring him to condign punishment. By the next mail I shall be able to give you more particulars concerning this inhuman affair. The body will be dissected by a surgeon with a view of identifying it.

It was not known until last week that anything more could be done by the agents of Messrs. Russell & Waddle, contractors to freight for the army here, or that another disclosure of the doings of this firm could be made which could surprise anybody here. We all know, and you in the States have heard, of the inefficiency and mismanagement of the agents of this firm; but no one could ever have dreamed that, while freighting for the General Government, and receiving pay from it, they were also freighting for our enemies. It is even so. I doubt if anything else which the future may reveal concerning this firm can now astonish any one. Last week, on examining the wagons that Mr. Rupp, their agent, packed at Fort Bridger, there were found in an interior wagon 1,000 pounds of powder, and other merchandise, directed to Eldridge, the agent for the Mormon Church, with "For X. Y." underneath. "X. Y." means the